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ABSTRACT

This paper examines the historical perspective of women in higher education, the problems facing women moving into leadership roles, the impact of Title IX on women, and finally the implications of these factors on women's ability to advance in higher education. The paper begins by examining the effect of affirmative action on women's progress, focusing particularly on their advancement to top administrative positions in higher education, and looking for the root of these problems in differences in leadership styles between females and males; disparities in access to professional development, in opportunities for publication and advanced degrees, and in salary. In reviewing the effects of Title IX, the 1972 federal civil rights law that prohibits sex discrimination in education programs, on women's athletic programs, the paper finds positive and negative effects: women have benefited from more athletic participation opportunities and more equitable facilities, but a major area of concern involves equality of salaries. A final section of the paper reviews the role that mentors play in women's career development. The paper also offers work shadowing and a sense of humor as factors that can help women advance in their careers. (Contains 30 references.) (CH)

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WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT: ADVANCING WOMEN IN HIGHER EDUCATION

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INTRODUCTION

The higher education system continues to be unfair to women even after 50 years of freedom. It has been established throughout history in the entire world that women have not only a limited role in society, but also restricted opportunities. This discrimination against women extends to all aspects of life (Nelson in Women in Development, 1998). Many researchers feel that higher education needs to be reoriented to increase women's access to traditionally male-dominated courses (Varghese in Higher Education, 1997). This, in turn, will equip them better to move into leadership roles.

Initially, the historical perspective of women and their advancement will be examined. Next, problems prohibiting women from moving into leadership roles will be addressed. Effects of Title IX and its impact on women in non-traditional roles in higher education will be reviewed. In conclusion, implications for advancement of women in higher education will be offered.

THE PATH OF PROGRESS

Research on affirmative action in the public sector has shown that women have made some progress in government employment (Critzer and Rae, 1998). Still, they continue to work primarily in clerical positions (Huckle, & Karnig, Welch, & Eribes in Critzer and Rai, 1998) and are unlikely to move into top administrative positions (Saint-Germair, in Critzer and Rai, 1998). This is certainly the case as the data is examined on women in higher education. Only 16% of college and university women are presidents, only 13% of chief business officers are women, and

only 25% of chief academic officers are women. Yet, women comprise more than 52% of the current student body (Chliwniak, 1997).

These disparities exist in other areas of higher education as well. Women are also excluded from administrative positions within athletics. Women head only 21% of college women's athletic programs and fill only 33% of all administrative jobs in women's programs (Women Still, 1995). Very little progress has occurred in the past 25 years. In 1972, more than nine out of ten women's sports' programs had female head administrators. By 1998, four of five (80.6%) were headed by men, which is a decrease from 81.5% in 1996 (Carpenter in Cook, 1998c). The number of jobs is increasing; however, women need to get a larger share of them. In the past two years there were 667 new head coaching jobs for women's sports but most went to men (Carpenter in Cook, 1998c).

In order to explain this discrepancy, some researchers point to educational differences. Education is one of the most important issues to be discussed in defining the roles of women in development. Women who have increased education are more aware of opportunities available to them. They are more self-confident, open-minded, and more competitive (Curtin in Critzer and Rai, 1998). However, women are under-represented significantly in higher level courses. Giri (cited in Higher education, 1997) found that while women represent 50% of the population, they comprise only 34% of graduate and post-graduate studies and 26.6% of diploma and certification courses. This disparity can be one of the many hard facts as to why women in higher education have such difficulty moving into non-traditional roles.

Schwartz (1997) explains that success stories of women in higher education have not been told or examined on a consistent and regular basis. Information that is available is often limited or inaccurate. Lee (1998) examined research on leadership in an 800-page book that claimed in

1981 to include "all the published evidence" on leadership. Chapter 30, "Women and Leadership," summarized research studies done in the 1970's. Lee (1998) provided some excerpts:

> "Women are seen as poor prospects for managerial positions for a number of reasons... The factors include: (1) women lack career orientation; (2) women lack leadership potential; (3) women are undependable, and (4) women are emotionally less stable." (1971, p. 1).
>
> "The female role stereotype that emerged found the woman to be less aggressive, more dependent and more emotional. The stereotypical female leader...was excitable in minor crises, passive, not competitive, illogical, home-oriented, unskilled in business, sneaky, and unfamiliar with the ways of the world" (1972, p. 1).
>
> "Women's self-confidence is increased with the incorporation of more of the stereotyped masculine traits into their own self-concept" (Lee, 1998, p. 1).

Only by analyzing women in development can researchers hope to dispel these frequently perceived misconceptions. The authors of this paper will examine the problem facing women in leadership roles in higher education, the establishment of Title IX and the implications for women in higher education today. For as Gloria Randle Scott, president of Bennett College North Carolina was quoted, "It is women who will make the changes that will be made in higher education and the world" (Green, 1998b, p. 1).

THE PROBLEM IN PERSPECTIVE

As one attempts to get the problem defined as to why women have such a difficult time entering leadership roles in higher education, one must examine women's role in education. Irby and Brown (1997) found that women who wanted to teach, historically, faced the same struggle as women who wanted to vote and those today who desire a leadership position in education.

The struggle, they feel, is based on the fact that male models for leadership dominate. Desjardins, Acker, Gutek, and others (cited in Chilwniak, 1997) also identified the problematic issue as male norms being used as the standard for behavior in leadership positions. Much research on women in non-traditional higher education roles focuses on the vast difference in leadership styles of women and men. As Hovis (cited in Cook, 1998a) stated clearly, "Gender expectations clearly influence leadership styles" (p. 8).

Differences in Leadership Style

Gender is a factor that only recently has been taken into account in studies of leadership. Earlier researchers sought to understand leadership by focusing their investigations on the characteristics of the leader, and since these leaders were almost exclusively of one gender, the notion of gender as an important variable in leadership was not raised (Middlehurst, 1997). Many believe that by closing the leadership gap, institutions would become more centered on process and persons (described as feminine concerns) rather than focused on tasks and outcomes (attributed to masculine styles of leadership) (Chliwniak, 1997).

Many psychologists explain that women are more nurturing and better at sharing than men are. Men bond together in ways which make them feel more powerful, and one way of achieving that is by excluding other people (Irby and Brown, 1997). Helgisen (cited in Chilwniak, 1997) related these to leadership as she concluded that women leaders place more emphasis on relationships, sharing and process, while males focus on completing tasks, achieving goals, hoarding information and winning. Ultimately, she states that while men are more concerned with systems and rules, women are more concerned with relations and atmosphere.

Male leadership styles often follow traditional patterns:

1) Men define situations and decisions as win-lose.

2) Men work at a relentless pace without breaks.

3) Men perceive work as life's highest priority and strongly identify themselves with their work.

4) Men prefer live action and have little time for reflection.

5) Men generally have difficulty sharing information (Sturnick in Green, 1998b)

Women's leadership styles are often in stark contrast:

1) Women bring their emotions to work and are caring and helping in general.

2) Women share information and set aside time for sharing and connecting.

3) Women take time for reflection, asking why is this working and how can we change?

4) Women work via inclusion, consensus building and a collaborative structure.

5) Women have long-term focus with a social vision (Sturnick in Green, 1998b, p. 1).

Hovis (cited in Cook, 1998a) found in her study of eight college and university CEO's that the most successful women presidents capitalized on the strengths most people expect in a woman, instead of trying to act like a man. Men are often more confident of their own abilities and less likely to invest time in gathering opinions from others. Women are generally better at gaining consensus before they act. Strong women leaders gather input from as many people as possible while staying responsible for the final decision. Women presidents who keep their jobs longest and draw highest praise at their institutions take a collaborative approach to decisions large and small. There's a close fit between their self-image as women, their actual behavior, and the expectations of those around them (Hovis in Cook, 1998a).

Brunner (1997) suggests that women need to develop the ability to remain "feminine" in the ways they communicate and at the same time be heard in a masculized culture. Sturnick (cited in Green 1998b) states it best when she says, "Women know how to develop collaborative

leadership models, build bases of support, develop networks and create long-lasting change" (p. 1).

Sturnick (cited in Green, 1998b) readily admits potential challenges women in higher education face. Women must overcome stereotyped accusations. They as a group are held to higher performance standards and must learn the rules of the game with less help and less access to and support from insiders. Sturnick found that women presidents last an average of 2.2 years less than their male counterparts and are less likely to go on to another presidency (Sturnick in Green, 1998b). She provides research to support the fact that differences in leadership styles account for a part of the reason there are fewer women in non-traditional roles in higher education.

These differences provide a good summary of the diversity between men and women in their leadership styles. Much of the data focuses on these differences as researchers attempt to explain the discrepancy in numbers that exists. Other researchers elude to issues they feel cause problems for women attempting to move into leadership roles in higher education.

OTHER ISSUES

Access to Professional Development

One of the other major issues that arises when explaining existing disparity is the fact that women have a more difficult time moving up the career ladder because of less access to professional development (Sturnick in Green, 1998b). Other reasons proposed include lack of equity in measurement of faculty productivity (Creamer, 1998) and the difficulty women have in earning a doctorate (Chrzanowski in Cook, 1998b).

Opportunity for Publication and Advanced Degrees

The gap between men and women faculty publications has narrowed in many fields in the last 20 years (Creamer, 1998). But women are still disproportionately over-represented among the non-publishers. About 43% of women compared to 23% of men surveyed reported never having published a journal article (Creamer, 1998). Women faculty are also under-represented among the prolific, defined as having published 51 or more articles (Creamer, 1998). These facts effect the number of women who have opportunities to advance in higher education as publications are often used to judge effectiveness and increase rank. Also used for tenure and promotion decisions is the attainment of a doctorate. More women seek doctorates on a part time basis than ever. Women take longer than men do to finish dissertations and more women drop out along the way, often because they're part-timers for whom schedules conflict, isolation, and feeling devalued create overwhelming problems (Chrzanowski in Cook, 1998b). These conditions have significant implications not only for the role women play in impacting the knowledge in a field, but for their success in the traditional academic reward structure (Creamer, 1998).

Salary Differences

Another discouraging factor for women who have the desire to move into non-traditional positions deals with salaries. Although salaries for campus administrators rose more last year than in the previous 30 years, female salaries still lag behind men's (Ott, 1998). The College and University Personnel Association (CUPA) surveyed 1515 institutions covering 170 administrative positions in September, 1997, from president to admissions counselors. *Women in Higher Education* journal selected 54 job titles most likely to be filled by women, plus a few more for comparison. Of the 54 job titles in four different types of schools, only 15 jobs showed women

earning higher median salaries than men, fewer than last year's 19 jobs and 1995's 30 jobs (Ott, 1998, p.5).

Gender Differences in 1997-1998 Administrative Salaries

	Doctoral		*Comprehensive*		*Baccalaureate*		*Two-Year*	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
CEO single unit	158,760	189,595	126,000	134,249	124,800	125,066	100,500	104,545
Asst to pres	76,500	87,775	52,082	70,945	40,000	60,000	41,276	64,221
Exec VP		160,000	99,857	99,000	73,779	91,900	80,898	81,744
Chief acad off	151,200	150,000	95,004	100,000	85,550	84,900	75,248	74,408
Asst chief acad off	103,500	102,721	72,561	78,224	53,776	63,353	64,261	61,779
Dir library serv	100,912	98,565	60,200	66,932	46,279	50,586	46,871	52,083
Dir instit res	70,760	73,138	49,075	57,411	44,995	54,590	46,870	52,353
Dir learn res ctr	57,077	66,360	40,773	51,582	34,120	38,775	49,703	52,238
Dir sponsored res	71,044	78,250	47,380	62,149	39,794	52,650	53,600	59,193
Dean arts & sci	121,423	123,750	85,148	86,521	72,950	64,927	61,240	59,836
Dean, business	136,086	140,000	81,271	94,302	53,976	61,200	58,845	60,213
Dean, communica	129,850	112,175	64,062	82,472		46,833	68,506	50,259
Dean, cont ed	95,847	98,906	69,142	75,000	53,848	65,150	58,758	64,370
Dean, education	111,940	112,374	80,000	83,400	50,620	57,622		68,476
Dean, health rel	105,656	112,217	86,814	89,471	51,966		58,035	71,320
Dean, humanities	103,312	113,333	57,982	68,753	54,075	49,000	61,022	60,094
Dean, sciences		127,296	77,493	81,403	50,426	60,342	60,842	62,131
Dean, soc sci	121,000	123,116	64,764	73,920	46,501	58,322	50,316	61,033
Dir, contin ed	66,271	77,200	47,300	60,643	40,216	51,855	49,550	54,392
Chief bus off	127,926	132,600	88,400	96,497	74,000	84,251	63,600	75,198
Chief admin off	109,692	124,200	76,427	86,661	71,500	72,500	70,306	71,038
Chief fin off	129,688	107,100	70,000	78,363	64,000	70,000	55,748	66,949
Gen counsel	100,825	111,300	76,812	78,375	71,000	76,320		
Chief pers/HR	84,500	84,500	55,063	61,614	44,976	53,327	50,939	58,575

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Assoc dir pers/HR	55,755	67,829	40,600	49,226	39,750	51,123	42,961	46,132
Mgr benefits	47,385	59,251	34,882	38,898	30,536	43,433	34,882	
Dir AA/EEO	66,826	74,615	52,332	59,000	54,453	66,421	53,864	55,400
Comptroller	83,250	85,332	54,302	60,729	45,997	55,782	45,828	56,688
Mgr payroll	46,200	54,503	34,109	38,625	29,123	39,440	34,700	47,448
Dir purchasing	63,655	65,000	41,550	49,113	34,929	43,012	34,433	40,000
Assoc dir purch	45,979	50,000	35,024	40,839	27,966	32,868	24,600	40,138
Dir bookstore	50,606	61,470	34,076	44,906	28,455	36,552	32,032	38,796
Chief devel off	103,866	124,139	72,646	89,314	71,184	79,404	54,651	59,238
Dir annual giving	50,000	60,000	39,634	40,091	37,421	41,748	40,000	40,891
Chief PR officer	78,675	99,920	51,500	58,375	42,500	50,000	42,824	48,883

	Doctoral		*Comprehensive*		*Baccalaureate*		*Two-Year*	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Dir comm serv	58,000	61,068	42,887	50,355	33,432	47,700	45,421	52,295
Dir publications	53,312	56,323	40,360	42,285	35,422	39,872	38,245	47,032
Dir info office	58,046	66,425	43,260	45,364	37,350	36,111	38,762	38,963
Chf student affs	104,000	113,352	79,017	82,661	70,000	65,325	65,268	67,921
Dean of students	75,775	77,417	53,250	59,800	46,724	49,303	62,511	64,064
Chief admiss off	68,000	75,029	55,216	58,404	50,087	53,306	44,697	51,824
Assoc dir admiss	48,034	50,049	38,770	41,050	33,750	36,523	36,101	42,087
Admiss counsel	32,429	32,356	26,000	31,394	24,213	24,204	30,770	32,421
Registrar	65,647	71,800	47,346	55,755	40,000	45,483	38,341	53,720
Assoc registrar	46,175	51,312	34,608	41,421	30,708	32,809	32,341	44,494
Dir student fin aid	64,795	69,700	48,099	53,336	40,000	47,700	44,472	46,811
Dir student hous	57,045	67,583	42,608	46,000	32,113	35,078	31,000	36,000
Dir student union	49,814	59,005	43,670	47,621	39,730	36,675		
Dir student activ	46,500	45,000	33,825	38,500	30,000	30,800	39,545	41,296
Dir career dev/pl	54,613	57,657	40,219	48,060	35,683	40,365	37,736	46,668
Dir athletics	90,000	111,750	57,721	64,127	45,655	52,159	42,562	50,371
Dir campus rec	50,527	55,897	33,000	39,300	34,053	32,775	33,995	37,030

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Dir conferences	46,755	61,853	35,375	41,400	34,711	36,000	38,720	45,362

Underlined figures indicate women earn more than men in this job title.

From the annual administrative survey by the College and University Personnel Assn.

These major differences in leadership styles, publication differences, advancement of degrees, and salary differences have been discouraging factors for women attempting to move in to non-traditional roles in higher education. History reveals that women have made significant progress since the 1970's mostly because of the awareness of an existing problem and the passage of a major enactment called Title IX. Scott (cited in Green, 1998a) pointed out that Title IX has led to huge improvements in women's equality in campus athletics during the past quarter century, but women need to experience equality on the "academic and personal development side too" (p. 2). Nevertheless, athletics has provided a foundation of Title IX research and data for other educational avenues to follow. Following is a brief overview of the implications of Title IX in athletics including its effects and the impact of these on women in non-traditional roles in higher education.

TITLE IX REVIEW

Title IX is a 1972 federal civil rights law prohibiting sex discrimination in education programs including athletics that receive or benefit from federal funding. Since nearly all educational institutions benefit from federal funding, all should comply. (Bonnette, 1996). Title IX has had positive and negative effects on women's sports (Carpenter, in Cook, 1998c). It consists of three major categories of athletic issues:

1. Sports offerings at an institution should provide participation opportunities for women and men that are substantially proportionate to their respective rates of enrollment as full-time undergraduate students. For example, a university with 52% full time undergraduate

enrollment who are women and 48% full time undergraduate enrollment who are men should have 52% athletic participants that are women and 48% athletic participants that are men.

2. Total scholarship dollars are to be divided in proportion to the participation of men and women in the intercollegiate athletics program. If 60% of participants are men and 40% are women, then 60% of the scholarship dollars are to be awarded to men and 40% to women.
3. Other program areas are also impacted. Eleven specific areas including but not limited to: equipment, supplies, scheduling of games and practice time, travel and per diem allowances, locker room and practice facilities, medical and training facilities, housing and dining facilities, and recruitment (Bonnette, 1996).

EFFECTS OF TITLE IX

As a result of Title IX, women and girls have benefited from more athletic participation opportunities and more equitable facilities. More women have received athletic scholarships and thus an opportunity for higher education that some may not have been able to afford otherwise (Empowering, 1995).

Playing opportunities for women continue to rise. The average number of women's teams per NCAA school reached an all-time high of 7.71 in 1998 compared to 5.61 just 20 years earlier. Between 1972 and 1978 the number of women's athletic teams doubled and thus participation has increased dramatically (Carpenter in Cook, 1998c). In 1972, before Title IX, women comprised only 15.6% of college athletes. In 1993, that percentage had grown to 34.8%; however, from 1981 to 1993 the increase was only from 30.5 to 34.8% showing little progress in recent years (Women Still, 1995).

Persisting Concerns

A major area of concern involves equality in salaries. Women are discouraged from entering careers in athletics because of low salaries. Seventy-five percent of women college athletes in an NCAA survey said they are interested in a career that offered a higher average salary than did coaching or administration of intercollegiate athletics (Barriers, 1995). Head coaches of men's teams at NCAA Division I schools earn 43% more than women's coaches (Cook, 1998f). In Division I basketball, men's head coaches were paid an average of $71,511 but the women's coaches made only $39,177. Even in female dominated sports like gymnastics, the men's coaches were paid more on average. And because most schools offer more sports for men than women, the average combined spending for men's salaries was $625,396 for Division I schools, but only $227,871 for women's teams (Barriers, 1995). In Texas alone, men's coaches get $1.9 million compared to $431,000 for women (Cook, 1998f).

Women are also shortchanged in athletic funding. In 1991, the NCAA conducted a study analyzing expenditures for women and men's athletics. The study revealed major inequities in the funding of men and women's athletics. The NCAA themselves called the findings "disturbing." Although the number of women and men on campus were roughly equal, the NCAA found that men received 70% of scholarship money. The inequities deny women not only the equal opportunity to benefit from sports but sometimes the opportunity to attend college at all because they were not offered an athletic scholarship (Women Still, 1995). A 1996-97 discrimination complaint filed by the National Organization for Women against the University of Southern California cited a funding discrepancy of $679,944 in the operating expenses of men's and women's basketball. $809,570 was allotted to the men's team and $129,626 went to the women's (O'Brien and Marvic, 1998).

A widespread myth says the only way to comply with Title IX is to cut men's sports, which feeds backlash against women and contributes to an adversarial climate on campus (Carpenter, in Cook, 1998c). According to Carpenter (cited in Cook, 1998c, p. 6), "Eliminating men's sports is unnecessary and unsound. We need to encourage the use of creative rather than destructive methods for providing equity in sports."

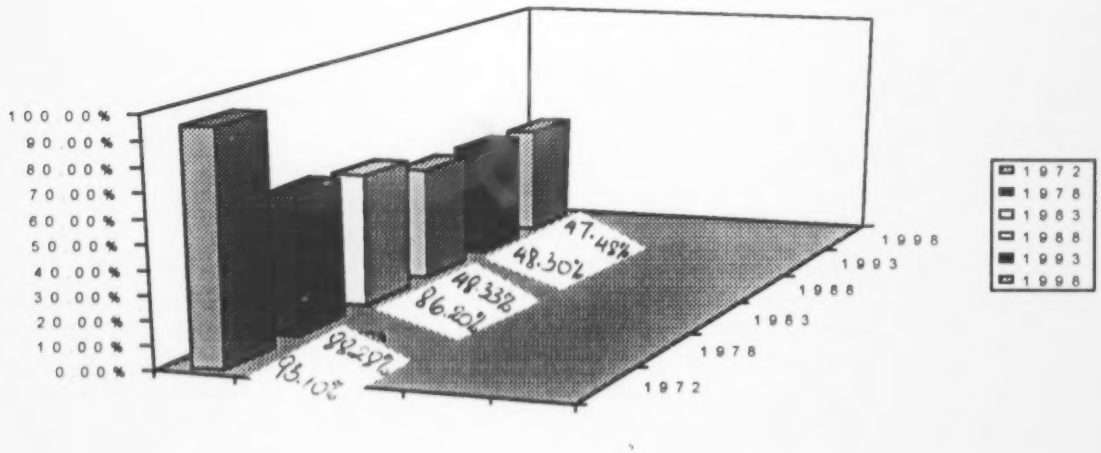
However, opposition to gender equity in sports does exist. It comes primarily from men coaches who fear that putting more resources into women's programs will mean taking money away from men's sports, especially football. Research shows, however, that few football teams make a profit; most run at a large deficit (Empowering, 1995). Opposition also comes from coaches of men's minor sports such as wrestling, golf and gymnastics. Coaches argue Title IX is hurting their sports by taking opportunities away from men. This is another myth. As more women have entered athletics, they have not displaced men; instead, the total number of athletes has increased (Empowering, 1995).

Despite the persistent inequities, the federal government has been very reluctant to enforce the law. The Office of Civil Rights, within the Department of Education, charged with enforcing Title IX is underfunded and despite the reluctance of schools to comply with gender equity, has never pulled federal funding from schools or colleges that discriminate against women and girls. Enforcement has instead been left up to individuals. Women and girls have had to file lawsuits on their own to challenge discriminatory practices in schools and colleges. While almost all of these lawsuits have been resolved in favor of women athletes and coaches, this is an expensive and time consuming avenue to gender equity (Empowering, 1995).

The good news is women students participate in intercollegiate athletics more than ever before. The bad news is they do it with too few role models. While the number of women

student athletes and varsity teams continues to grow, a shrinking percentage have a female head coach (Carpenter, in Cook, 1998c). In 1972, the year Title IX was signed into law, women coached over 90 % of women's teams. Today more than half of women's teams have men coaches but fewer than 2% of men's teams have women coaches (Women Still, 1995).

Women's Teams Coached by Women



Many researchers have produced evidence surrounding the difficulties facing women moving into non-traditional roles. Brunner (1997) found that for the most part, however, the research focuses on topics such as the lack of access to positions, lack of support and family demands. It is clear that in order to truly advance women in higher education, one must examine the implications of all the available research. Recent literature offers relatively little insight into gender-related strategies for success that are specific to women in higher education (Brunner, 1997). Some strategies that will be suggested however include the use of mentors, work shadowing, networking, and humor.

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Use of Mentors

Research shows that mentors can play a crucial role in career development (Brooks & Brooks, 1997). Successful women learn from each other. Corporate leaders rank mentoring second only to education as a key to success (Davis in Cook, 1998d). Darby (in Jenkins, 1998) interviewed 15 women about their mentoring experiences. She identified three major components of an effective mentoring relationship:

1) The initial mentoring relationship must occur early in career development when people are more receptive to developing skills and competencies needed for the next organizational step.
2) The mentor must be an influential person in the organization.
3) The mentor must be personally committed to participate in the relationship.

Davis (in Cook, 1998d) gives suggestions on making the most of a mentor that include defining how often you'll meet, being enthusiastic, following through with suggestions, rewarding your mentor and passing it on by mentoring somebody else.

The benefits of mentoring are obvious. Instructional benefits include on-the-job training. Psychological benefits include increased self-confidence, self-esteem, and emotional support. Finally, mentoring offers professional benefits by networking and opening doors. Effective mentors provide opportunities for their protégé's to demonstrate competence, performance and special talents to other administrators. They also challenge protégé's and offer critical feedback and support (Darby, in Jenkins, 1998).

Research shows that only 10% of the population take advantage of associations to advance their careers. What a waste of networking potential! Fewer than one in ten real job opportunities are posted (Davis, in Cook, 1998d). The advantages of networking include serving other women

in positions at their own or higher levels with whom women can share their experiences and knowledge (King, 1997). Work shadowing can be considered a specialized type of networking.

Work Shadowing

Work shadowing involves following a person all day in a normal working environment. Work shadowing focuses on the individual learner rather than the material to be learned. Participants already have knowledge and the learning process is being developed. It is an inexpensive strategy that is not intrusive on time and is non-threatening. Work shadowing can be particularly important for women as they find themselves a part of a small minority (Gee, 1997). Learning in a real life setting offers the opportunity to gain practical knowledge such as the value of humor.

Sense of Humor

Many successful women point out that a sense of humor can make the difference between a difficult, uncomfortable situation and one that can be worked out (Brooks & Brooks, 1997). Cook (1998e) suggests using humor as a leadership skill. Research suggests it's well worth learning. Lack of humor is associated with high levels of burn out and low self-esteem. With the self-confidence to use humor, an effective leader can bring about positive growth, bonding opportunities and communication enhancement (Cook, 1998e). Humor can be learned through skill and practice and should be considered an important management tool.

CONCLUSION

Recent research lists women's deficiencies, offering solutions to help women compensate by emulating men (Van Baron, 1998). In reality, women have many positive attributes that actually help them move into positions of leadership roles in higher education. Several scholars contend that a leader with an emerging inclusive style of leadership could provide an institution with a positive step in the right direction (Chliwniak, 1997). As pointed out earlier, women possess this

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important quality. Despite difficulty in publishing, earning a doctorate, and gaining equality in salaries, women have made positive strides. Title IX has positively impacted women in athletic endeavors to some degree, but disparity still exists. Women who truly desire to advance in non-traditional roles should actively seek a mentor, make use of network potential and job shadowing. They should keep in mind that adding humor to the workplace can be advantageous.

For if Scott (cited in Green, 1998b) is right, "It is women who will make the changes that will be made in higher education and the world" (p. 1). With growing numbers of strong women leaders who are not afraid to celebrate that they are women, future leaders will have more role models to use as mentors (Hovis in Cook, 1998a). Van Baron (1998) calls women the makers, shapers, and recipients who should be proud of the fact that they don't fit the traditional male mold. Not fitting the mold is a sign of creativity and not living up to a long established ideal should be seen as progressive, growth producing and strengthening. Women didn't invent the great monuments of civilization, but they may have made everything else, especially those requiring attention to detail, subtle as well as obvious teamwork and an understanding of the intricacies of life (Van Baron, 1998, p. 2).

Armed with this wisdom, women should be encouraged to seek leadership roles in higher education and further develop the unique skills they possess.

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